# Effects of sylvicultural activity on ecological processes in floodplain forests of the southern United States

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#### Introduction

In terms of area, riverine systems represent the largest category of forested wetlands in the United States although estimates of their extent in the Southeast vary widely (i.e. 6 to 13 million ha—Sharitz and Mitsch, 1993). In addition to areal significance, riverine forests are very important functionally because of a high degree of hydrologic interconnectivity within the landscape and, consequently, have great potential for influencing the chemistry and biology of aquatic systems (Brinson, 1993). As a result, management activities that alter the biogeochemical transformation function of riparian forests have the capacity to influence much larger portions of the landscape.

Floodplain forests are typically occupied by a mosaic of vegetation communities that are defined by hydroperiod (Shelford, 1954; Hodges, 1995). Areas such as deepwater swamps with long hydroperiods may be dominated by water tupelo (*Nyssa aquatica*) and baldcypress (*Taxodium distichum*) while the wetter portions of true floodplains could be occupied by sweetbay (*Magnolia virg iniana*), overcup oak (*Quercus lyrata*), red maple (*Acer rubrum*), water hickory (*Carya aquatica*), and laurel oak (*Quercus hemisphaerica*). Moderately well-drained areas may support sweetgum and water oak while cherrybark oak (*Quercus falcata var. pagodaefolia*) and black gum (*Nyssa sylvatica*) often occur on better drained sites (Sharitz and Mitsch, 1993). While floodplain forests are clearly dominated by deciduous species, the occurrence of slash, spruce, and/or loblolly pine (i.e. *Pinus elliottii, glabra*, and *taeda* respectively depending on the associated hydroperiod) is also common.

Annual litterfall and total aboveground biomass production range between 3 to 7 and 7 to 20 t/ha respectively among types of riverine forests in the southeastern US (Brinson 1990, Conner 1994). The high values of both ranges indicate that some floodplain forests are among the most productive forests of the temperate zone (Bray and Gorham, 1964; Rodin and Bazilevich, 1967). Brinson rootes that no latitudinal patterns emerge from a review of floodplain NPP literature and that this is likely due to the dominance of intrasystem hydrology over climatic variation as the controlling factor behind floodplain NPP.

In general, forested floodplains of the southeastern United States fall into two categories from a biogeochemical standpoint: alluvial (i.e. redwater) and blackwater

(Wharton, 1978; Walbridge and Lockaby, 1994). Alluvial riverine systems are those with watersheds which lie in physiographic units with clayey soils and typically have relatively high concentrations of inorganic ions. Watersheds of blackwater systems lie within the coastal plains (i.e. sandy soils) and streams therein are usually low in inorganic nutrients. Consequently, alluvial systems tend to be eutrophic while those of blackwater systems may be more oligotrophic. The latter statement may be particularly true in the case of P (Lockaby et al., 1994).

## Effects of past land-use on present floodplain systems

The current condition of almost all floodplain forests in the southeastern United States reflects the integration of natural factors plus the influence of past human activities (Wharton, 1978). The nature and intensity of previous activities vary widely and were partially dependent on historical patterns in terms of the most prevalent land use activities practiced in a given area. As an example, the spatial pattern of species occurrence in some floodplain forests reflects altered hydroperiods that result from 19th and early 20th century agricultural ditching and/or diking (Lockaby et al., 1995; Stanturf et al., 1995).

Floodplains that were less accessible and/or inherently wetter may not have been farmed but were likely subjected to logging. In most cases, high-grade logging was practiced and only removed valuable species such as baldcypress, oak spp., or pine spp. Logs were removed by a variety of means which included animals, rail-spurs, and, within the wettest areas, pull-boats (Walker, 1991). Influences of selective logging on present-day structure and composition of floodplain forests were more subtle than those associated with agriculture and, consequently, it is difficult to assess the degree to which lasting effects may have occurred. However, with the exception of pull-boat logging and its associated canal systems, the selective logging would cause little alteration in hydroperiod and, consequently, we theorize that most changes in site quality would have been short-term although species composition may have been altered by removal of seed sources.

## Sylvicultural systems presently used

Historical use of selection/high grade logging in floodplain for ests has evolved to an almost complete reliance at the present time on clearcut systems coupled with natural regeneration (Walbridge and Lockaby, 1994). However, interest in partial cutting is increasing (Meadows and Stanturf, 1995). Clearcut systems may utilize either manual and mechanized methods for felling, the latter obviously neces sitating an additional

entry by large equipment. The vast majority of log removal systems are ground-based, skidder operations with tire widths sometimes being widened in an effort to reduce ground-pressure (Aust et al., 1992; Stokes and Schilling, 1995). A small percentage of log removal systems are aerial with helicopters serving as the primary transport mode. The natural regeneration methods normally used require no site preparation so that site disturbance is confined to the harvest and log removal phases only.

# Responses to sylvicultural disturbance Hydrology

Harvest operations alone may cause only subtle changes in floodplain forest hydrology and those changes seem to be short-term. The most commonplace hydrologic change is elevation of soil water tables (Aust and Lea, 1992; Perison et al., 1992; Lockaby et al., 1995), an effect that is also common on many upland sites following harvests. The rise is due to a reduction in evapotranspiration which occurs as a result of temporary removal of the transpiring surface. Evaporative losses alone (in most cases) from clearcut areas should not greatly exceed those from closed canopies since soil temperature elevations are usually minimal (e.g. 2–3° C higher within cut areas—Aust et al., 1992; Messina et al., 1995). An exception in terms of the magnitude of soil temperature increase was described by Lockaby et al. (1994) following exposure of dark histosols in south Alabama where increases ranged between 1 O–15° C. The extent of the change in water table depth is most pronounced prior to re-establishment of a vegetative canopy and, in terms of magnitude, may be small (e.g. 14 cm rise on clearcut plots—Lockaby et al., 1995).

An unusual water table response was documented following harvest of a floodplain forest which developed on dark-colored, organic soils (Locka by et al., 1994). In this instance, water tables receded (i.e. depth to water tables increased) until vegetation canopies were re-established in the second year after harvest. The authors postulated that this effect was caused by strong stimulation of evaporation from the dark soils, a theory supported by the previously mentioned, very high increases in soil temperature within harvest areas.

Compared to the effects of tree removal alone, floodplain forest hydrology may be affected to a greater extent by design of logging roads, a necessary component of ground-based harvests. Culverts, ditches, and roads designed as elevated berms may alter sheetflow velocity (Rummer et al., 1995) and direction (Lockaby et al., 1995). A possibility exists, if sheetflow is altered to a significant degree, that floodplain functions such as vegetation productivity (Young et al., 1995) and nutrient transformation (Lockaby et al., 1995) could be altered as well.

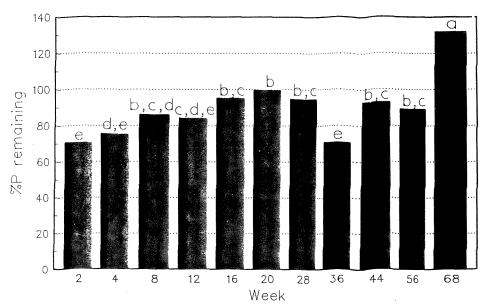


Figure 1a:
Percent of original P content remaining in litterbags placed in control plots on Little Escambia Creek floodplain in south Alabama.

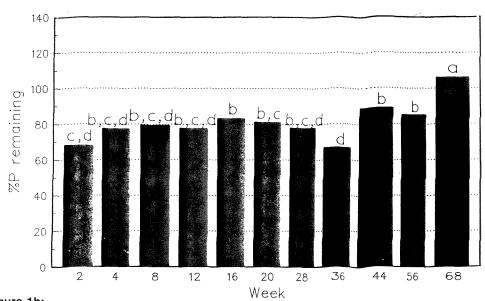


Figure 1b:

Percent of original P content remaining in litterbags placed in helicopter harvested plots on Little Escambia Creek floodplain in south Alabama.

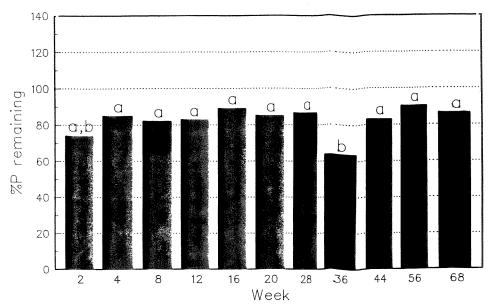


Figure 1c:
Percent of original P content remaining in litterbags placed in skidder harvested plots on Little Escambia Creek floodplain in south Alabama.

## Biogeochemistry

Several studies have examined the effect of harvest disturbances on rates and magnitude of nutrient cycling within floodplain forests as well as on geochemical input-output relationships. Although harvest studies in upland forests have sometimes demonstrated a reduction in decomposition rates (Will et al., 1983), similar investigations in wetlands have generally shown accelerations (Mader et al., 1988) or no change (Lockaby et al., 1995). The divergent responses between upland vs. floodplain systems probably reflect the greater tendency in the former for soil moisture to become limiting to microbes following canopy removal and subsequent elevation of soil temperatures.

Temporal patterns of N and P immobilization/mineralization in decomposing litter appear to be particularly sensitive to changes in soil microclimate brought about by harvest disturbance. In Fig. 1a-c (Griffin et al., 1993), P patterns become less dynamic (i.e. dampened oscillation) as the severity of harvest disturbance increases in the order control, helicopter, skidder. The utility of comparing treatment conditions within a floodplain on the basis of these patterns is derived from the integration of microbial activity and nutrient availability which is reflected therein. Temporal pattern alteration will affect the timing and magnitude of nutrient availability in some floodplain systems and, thus, may exert an influence on (1) species composition of replacement vegetation and (2) geochemical source/sink relationships.

The capacity of floodplains to serve as sinks, sources, or transformation zones for nutrients (depending on position in the landscape, magnitude of elemental inputs, and time since disturbance) has been clearly documented (Brinson, 1993). In recent history, there has been much concern regarding the degree to which sylvicultural activity might stimulate source behavior for a number of non-point source pollutants (i.e. sediment, nitrate, etc.). However, the magnitude of source activity has been generally shown to be small and the longevity of any effects to be short-term (Shepard, 1994; Lockaby et al., 1994; Messina et al., 1995). There are strong indications that, once revegetation has occurred, sediment deposition is stimulated by enhancement of the roughness coefficient and the associated loss of energy in sheetflow (Scott et al., 1990; Perison et al., 1992; Zaebst et al., 1994).

The degree to which sylvicultural disturbance might alter the capacity of a flood-plain forest to transform nutrients (Elder, 1985) is less certain than that associated with the aforementioned ono-point source activity. The transformation process is more subtle chemically and biologically than the occurrence of non-point source pollution and, consequently, requires a different study design. Sediment and chemical exchange between sheetflow and floodplain surface soils were studied in the first year following harvests in Georgia (Lockaby et al., 1995). Those authors found few differences between partial harvests and unharvested areas in terms of changes in sheetflow chemistry. Both areas acted to detain basic cations and to release nitrate. The data suggested that total organic carbon (TOC) export was increased from partially harvested areas, probably as a result of the large amounts of coarse woody debris there.

## Vegetation composition and productivity

Clear assessments of the degree to which sylvicultural operations may affect the composition and productivity of woody species are hampered by the brief timespans (i.e. 1–2 years) of most studies reported (Lloyd, 1995; Messina et al., 1995). An exception is the harvest response data of Zaebst et al. (1994) which compare woody vegetation characteristics following aerial vs. ground-based log removal in the Mobile River Delta of south Alabama. Although species composition differed between the two log removal systems, total aboveground biomass and stem den sities were similar at age 7. Given recent reports of long-term productivity declines following ground-based harvests on upland sites in the southern United States (Haywood and Tiarks, 1994), future productivity assessments of aerial vs. ground-based systems on plots associated with several recent studies (Perison et al., 1992; Lockaby et al., 1994; Lockaby et al., 1995; Messina et al., 1995; Zaebst et al., 1994) are clearly war anted as those stands mature.

It is evident that the mode of log removal used (i.e. whether aerial or ground-based) can make a major difference in terms of species composition in the first year

following harvests (Walbridge and Lockaby, 1994). In general, species which reproduce primarily from seed are favored by ground-based operations while those that regenerate via sprouting are favored by aerial harvesting. The divergent responses are probably due to a greater tendency for damage to occur to roots and stumps with ground-based equipment. Whether young stands resulting from the two systems of log removal continue to reflect different species composition as they mature is uncertain.

There also appears to be potential for manipulation of *Quercus sp.* composition in floodplain forests through the use of partial cuts which may preced a clearcut by a variable number of years (Barry and Nix, 1992). Although there is strong evidence that the type of log-removal system and the occurence of intermediate operations both influence species composition, there remains much uncertainty in mixed-species, uneven-age floodplain forests concerning the best methods to use for guiding composition to a desired outcome (Meadows and Stanturf, 1995).

## Amphibian populations

The most commonly used index of faunal habitat quality (as well as general ecosystem integrity (Vitt et al., 1990) in connection with floodplain forest disturbance is amphibian population surveys. This is because amphibians are particularly sensitive to subtle changes in habitat (Pechmann et al., 1989; Blaustein and Wake, 1990; Hayes and Jennings, 1990) and have small ranges (Corn and Bury, 1989). In addition, many amphibian species occupy terrestrial-aquatic ecotones (Wyman, 1990) and, thus, they are particularly suited to evaluations of floodplain disturbance.

In south Alabama, Clawson et al. (1995) found that, immediately after helicopter harvests in floodplain forests situated on organic soils, density was affected only to a minor degree but that diversity declined sharply. However, diversity recovered by six months after harvests presumably as vegetative cover was reestablished and surface soil temperatures began to return to normal ranges. Although the number of species had recovered, shifts in species composition persisted for the two year study duration. Phelps and Lancia (1992), working in the coastal plain of South Carolina, felt that their data suggested greater diversity in clearcut areas even though no statistical differences were found between clearcuts vs. controls. As in the case of vegetative responses, the time required for re-establishment of pre-harvest amphibian populations (or the degree to which re-establishment may occur at all) are unknown.

#### Conclusions

Existing studies indicate that sylvicultural operations consisting of clearcuts in combination with natural regeneration are compatible in a general sens e with the major functions associated with floodplain forests. These operations are particularly compat-

ible with functions if aerial log removal systems are utilized. Based on general observations of perceived impacts on floodplain forests from both historical and current land management scenarios, we believe that those scenarios with less potential to induce longterm changes are those which alter hydroperiod to the least extent.

There remains a need to clarify potential influences of log ging roads on hydroperiod and, subsequently, on vegetation productivity and biogeochemical transformation functions. Also, the ecological processes involved with and the effect of land management on the latter function have been little researched. Finally, reassessment of vegetation productivity and faunal population dynamics on floodplains which were harvested 10–20 years ago are badly needed in order to document the degree to which the aggradation of those factors may or may not converge to preharvest states.

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